Plant Species Indicators of Physical Environment in Great Lakes Coastal Wetlands

Carol A. Johnston^{1,*}, Barbara L. Bedford², Michael Bourdaghs³, Terry Brown³, Christin Frieswyk⁴, Mirela Tulbure¹, Lynn Vaccaro², and Joy B. Zedler⁴

¹Department of Biology and Microbiology South Dakota State University, Box 2207B Brookings, South Dakota 57007

²Department of Natural Resources Fernow Hall Cornell University Ithaca, New York 14853

³Center for Water and the Environment Natural Resources Research Institute University of Minnesota 5013 Miller Trunk Highway Duluth, Minnesota 55811-1442

> ⁴Department of Botany University of Wisconsin 430 Lincoln Drive Madison, Wisconsin 53703

ABSTRACT. Plant taxa identified in 90 U.S. Great Lakes coastal emergent wetlands were evaluated as indicators of physical environment. Canonical correspondence analysis using the 40 most common taxa showed that water depth and tussock height explained the greatest amount of species-environment interaction among ten environmental factors measured as continuous variables (water depth, tussock height, latitude, longitude, and six ground cover categories). Indicator species analysis was used to identify species-environment interactions with categorical variables of soil type (sand, silt, clay, organic) and hydrogeomorphic type (Open-Coast Wetlands, River-Influenced Wetlands, Protected Wetlands). Of the 169 taxa that occurred in a minimum of four study sites and ten plots, 48 were hydrogeomorphic indicators and 90 were soil indicators. Most indicators of Protected Wetlands were bog and fen species which were also organic soil indicators. Protected Wetlands had significantly greater average coefficient of conservatism (C) values than did Open-Coast Wetlands and River-Influenced Wetlands, but average C values did not differ significantly by soil type. Open-Coast and River-Influenced hydrogeomorphic types tended to have sand or silt soils. Clay soils were found primarily in areas with Quaternary glaciolacustrine deposits or clay-rich tills. A fuller understanding of how the physical environment influences plant species distribution will improve our ability to detect the response of wetland vegetation to anthropogenic activities.

INDEX WORDS: Indicator species, soil texture, organic soil, hydrogeomorphic, tussock, coastal wetlands.

INTRODUCTION

The 5,900 km U.S. shoreline of the Laurentian Great Lakes intercepts a range of climatic, geo-

logic, and hydrologic conditions, so its coastal wetlands occur in a variety of physical environments. Consequently, the flora of Great Lakes coastal wetlands is also diverse, encompassing hundreds of plant species (Geis and Kee 1977, Herdendorf 1992, Minc 1997, Epstein *et al.* 2002).

^{*}Corresponding author. E-mail: carol.johnston@sdstate.edu

Each of the Great Lakes has unique dimensions, climate, and wetland characteristics. Lake Superior is the largest, coldest, and deepest of the Great Lakes, and has an abundance of coastal peatlands (Epstein et al. 1997). North-south trending Lake Michigan has drowned river-mouth wetlands along its eastern shore (Wilcox et al. 2002) as well as numerous marshes along Green Bay on its western shore (Harris et al. 1977). Lake Huron is characterized by shallow, sandy beaches and includes extensive lakebed marshes in Saginaw Bay (Burton et al. 2002). Marshes at the western end of Lake Erie, the shallowest and southernmost of the Great Lakes. occupy a postglacial lake plain (Herdendorf 1992). Lake Ontario, the smallest of the Great Lakes by surface area, has numerous lagoons and wetlands protected by barrier beaches along its eastern and southern shorelines (Geis and Kee 1977).

Soils within Great Lakes coastal wetlands have developed from a variety of substrates. The advance and retreat of the Late Wisconsin glaciation deposited materials ranging from gravelly outwash to fine-textured glaciolacustrine deposits in the Great Lakes basin (Fullerton 2004, Fullerton 2005, Fullerton and Richmond 1991, Johnson and Johnston 1995, Richmond and Fullerton 2001a, Richmond and Fullerton 2001b). Organic matter has accumulated in peatlands during post-glacial times, and rivers continue to deposit sandy and silty alluvium.

A wetland's geomorphology influences its vulnerability to hydrologic forces (Wilcox et al. 2002). Therefore, any attempt to use plants as indicators of ecological condition must first evaluate the degree to which plant composition reflects the hydrogeomorphology of a wetland. The Great Lakes Environmental Indicators (GLEI) project recognized the importance of coastal wetland hydrogeomorphology in its sample design (Danz et al. 2005). The GLEI project categorized wetlands of the U.S. Great Lakes coast into three hydrogeomorphic categories based on definitions by Keough *et al.* (1999): Open-Coast Wetlands, River-Influenced Wetlands, and Protected Wetlands. Open-Coast Wetlands are wetlands where emergent plants grow out of shallow lakebed that is relatively exposed to wave action. River-Influenced Wetlands include marshes and peatlands that border a river at its confluence with one of the Great Lakes and receive hydrologic inputs from upstream as well as from the lake. Protected Wetlands are hydrologically connected with the Great Lakes but "occur landward of a sand barrier, such as an attached spit or beach ridge" that protects them from the full force of wave action (Keough *et al.* 1999). It is *not* an objective of this paper to evaluate the validity of the hydrogeomorphic classes assigned by the GLEI project, which are similar but not identical to hydrogeomorphic classes later used by other Great Lakes groups (e.g., Albert *et al.* 2005). The objective of using the GLEI hydrogeomorphic classes in this manuscript is to determine their association with individual plant species within the context of the greater GLEI sample design.

Individual plant species vary in their responsiveness to the wide array of hydrologic and edaphic conditions that naturally occur in Great Lakes wetlands. Recent research has tested the use of wetland vegetation as an indicator of ecological condition (Albert and Minc 2004, Bertram and Stadler-Salt 1998, Cole 2002, Simon *et al.* 2001, U.S. EPA 2002a, U.S. EPA 2002b, Wilcox *et al.* 2002), but no comprehensive classification exists for individual wetland plant species as indicators of physical environment.

An understanding of individual plant species is a first step in developing indicators of ecological condition because indices based on plant assemblages rely on the cumulative behavior of individual species. An understanding of plant response to the physical environment is also essential to distinguish ecological degradation from inherent ecological variability, because the anthropogenic disturbances that degrade ecological condition are superimposed upon physical environmental gradients. Therefore, the aim of this paper is to evaluate individual plant species as indicators of the physical environment in wetlands of the U.S. Great Lakes coast. Specific objectives are (1) to relate plant species to physical environmental attributes of ground cover, water depth, soil, and location; and (2) to identify plant indicator species of soil and hydrogeomorphic type within U.S. Great Lakes coastal wetlands.

Use of the term "indicator species" follows that of Dufrêne and Legendre (1997) on the association of a species to a particular habitat. This paper does *not* seek to develop indicators of environmental degradation, but see Bourdaghs (2006), Brazner *et al.* (2007), and Frieswyk *et al.* (2007), for more information on linkages with specific stressors.

METHODS

Site Selection and Sampling

Wetland study sites were selected using an objective, stratified random statistical design spanning

TABLE 1. List of study sites. "Lab data" denotes sites for which soil organic matter and particle size data were available. "River or stream" is the name of the largest river or stream that flows into or adjacent to the wetland complex. "Ecoprovince" codes: L = Laurentian Mixed Forest, E = Eastern Broadleaf Forest.

| GLEI complex | Lab | | | Eco- | | | Hydro- geomorphic |
|--------------|------|-----------------------|----------------------|----------|-------|--------------|----------------------|
| ID | data | Site name | River or stream | province | State | Lake | class |
| 1004 | | Wahbegon Island | Saint Louis River | L | WI | Superior | River |
| 1005 | * | Pokegama River | Pokegama River | L | WI | Superior | River |
| 1006 | | Kimballs Bay | Saint Louis River | L | WI | Superior | River |
| 1008 | | Hog Island | Unnamed | L | WI | Superior | Open |
| 1009 | | Nemadji River | Nemadji River | L | WI | Superior | River |
| 1010 | | Allouez Bay | Bear Creek | L | WI | Superior | Protected |
| 1011 | | Amnicon River | Amnicon River | L | WI | Superior | River |
| 1012 | * | Middle River | Middle River | L | WI | Superior | River |
| 1014 | | Bois Brule River | Bois Brule River | L | WI | Superior | River |
| 1348 | | Flag River | Flag River | L | WI | Superior | River |
| 1350 | | Port Wing | None | L | WI | Superior | Protected |
| 1016 | | Cranberry River | Cranberry River | L | WI | Superior | River |
| 1017 | | Bark Bay | Bark River | L | WI | Superior | Protected |
| 1018 | | Lost Creek | Lost Creek No. 1 | L | WI | Superior | Protected |
| 1021 | | Pikes Creek | Pikes Creek | L | WI | Superior | River |
| 1351 | | Sioux River Slough | Sioux River | L | WI | Superior | River |
| 1352 | | Bayview Beach | None | L | WI | Superior | Protected |
| 1024 | | Chequamegon Bay | Fish Creek | L | WI | Superior | Open |
| 1025 | * | Fish Creek | Fish Creek | L | WI | Superior | River |
| 1026 | * | Prentice Park | Unnamed | L | WI | Superior | Protected |
| 1353 | * | Kakagon River | Kakagon River | L | WI | Superior | Open |
| 1029 | | Honest John Lake | Denomie Creek | L | WI | Superior | Protected |
| 1039 | * | L'Anse Bay | Sixmile Creek | L | MI | Superior | Protected |
| 1040 | | Lightfoot Bay | None | L | MI | Superior | Protected |
| 1047 | * | Au Train River | Au Train River | L | MI | Superior | River |
| 1049 | * | Tahquamegon River | Tahquamenon River | L | MI | Superior | River |
| 1050 | | Munuscong | Munuscong River | L | MI | Huron | Open |
| 1056 | | Flowers Creek | Flowers Creek | L | MI | Huron | Open |
| 1058 | | Mackinac Bay | Mackinac Creek | L | MI | Huron | Open |
| 1060 | * | Mismer Bay | Steele Creek | L | MI | Huron | Open |
| 1071 | | Sturgeon River | None | L | MI | Michigan | Protected |
| 1077 | | Rapid River | Whitefish River | L | MI | Michigan | Open |
| 1356 | | Ford River Delta | Ford River | L | MI | Michigan | Open |
| 1089 | * | Peshtigo River | Peshtigo River | L | WI | Michigan | River |
| 1094 | * | Oconto Marsh | Oconto River | L | WI | Michigan | Open |
| 1357 | | Little Suamico River | Little Suamico River | | WI | Michigan | Open |
| 1099 | | Little Tail Point | None | L | WI | Michigan | Open |
| 1359 | | Sensiba Wildlife Area | Suamico River | L | WI | Michigan | Open |
| 1361 | | Dead Horse Bay | None | L | WI | Michigan | Open |
| 1102 | | Peters Marsh | None | L | WI | Michigan | Open |
| 1103 | | Peats Lake | Duck Creek | L | WI | Michigan | Open |
| 1106 | | Point au Sauble | Unnamed | L | WI | Michigan | Protected |
| 1109 | | Toft Point | None | L | WI | Michigan | Protected |
| 1110 | | Moonlight Bay | None | L | WI | Michigan | Open |
| 1113 | | Ahnapee River | Ahnappe River | L | WI | Michigan | River |
| 1114 | | Kewaunee River | Kewaunee River | Ĺ | WI | Michigan | River |
| 1116 | | East Twin River | Twin River | Ĺ | WI | Michigan | River |
| 1129 | | Galien River | Galien River | Ē | MI | Michigan | River |
| 1130 | * | Grand Mere | None | Ē | MI | Michigan | Protected |
| 1150 | | Claire 171010 | 110110 | | 1711 | 1,1101115411 | 1100000 |

TABLE 1. Continued.

| GLEI complex ID | Lab data | Site name | River or stream | Eco- province | State | Lake | Hydro- geomorphic class |
|-----------------------|-------------|---------------------|---------------------|------------------|-------|----------|-------------------------------|
| 1132 | | Black River | Black River | Е | MI | Michigan | River |
| 1133 | | Kalamazoo River | Kalamazoo River | E | MI | Michigan | River |
| 1138 | | Pigeon River | Pigeon River | E | MI | Michigan | River |
| 1143 | * | Mona Lake | Black Creek | E | MI | Michigan | River |
| 1152 | * | Big Sable | Big Sable River | L | MI | Michigan | River |
| 1155 | * | Arcadia Lake | Bowens Creek | L | MI | Michigan | River |
| 1162 | * | Goose Bay | None | L | MI | Michigan | Open |
| 1164 | | Cecil | None | L | MI | Michigan | Protected |
| 1165 | * | Cheboygan Point | None | L | MI | Huron | Protected |
| 1169 | * | Misery Bay | None | L | MI | Huron | Open |
| 1170 | * | Lake Besser | Thunder Bay River | L | MI | Huron | River |
| 1171 | | Squaw Bay | None | L | MI | Huron | Protected |
| 1182 | | Bordeau Road | None | E | MI | Huron | Open |
| 1184 | | White Feather Creek | White Feather Creek | | MI | Huron | Open |
| 1187 | * | Neuman Road | None | E | MI | Huron | Open |
| 1205 | * | Blind Pass | None | Ē | MI | Huron | Open |
| 1206 | | Wildfowl Bay | None | E | MI | Huron | Open |
| 1207 | | Caseville | None | Ē | MI | Huron | Open |
| 1225 | | Otter Creek | Otter Creek | Ē | MI | Erie | River |
| 1226 | * | Toledo Beach | Muddy Creek | Ē | MI | Erie | Protected |
| 1228 | * | Bay Creek | Bay Creek | Ē | MI | Erie | Protected |
| 1229 | | Little Lake Creek | Little Lake Creek | Ē | MI | Erie | Protected |
| 1231 | | Kelly Doty Drain | Kelly Doty Drain | Ē | MI | Erie | Protected |
| 1238 | | Magee Marsh | Turtle Creek | Ē | OH | Erie | Protected |
| 1241 | * | Winous Point | Muddy Creek | Ē | OH | Erie | Protected |
| 1243 | | Hickory Island | Raccoon Creek | Ē | OH | Erie | Protected |
| 1254 | | Huron River | Huron River | Ē | OH | Erie | River |
| 1260 | | Presque Isle | None | Ē | PA | Erie | Protected |
| 1270 | | Brush Creek | Brush Creek | Ē | NY | Ontario | River |
| 1275 | * | Braddock Bay | Salmon Creek | E | NY | Ontario | Open |
| 1280 | | Maxwell Bay | Salmon Creek | E | NY | Ontario | Protected |
| 1285 | * | Sodus Bay | None | E | NY | Ontario | Protected |
| 1288 | * | East Bay | Mudge Creek | E | NY | Ontario | River |
| 1291 | | Desbrough Park | None None | E | NY | Ontario | Protected |
| 1296 | | Blind Sodus Bay | Blind Sodus Creek | E | NY | Ontario | River |
| 1297 | | Sterling Creek | Sterling Creek | E | NY | Ontario | Protected |
| 1306 | | Sage Creek | Sage Creek | E | NY | Ontario | River |
| 1300 | | Ramona Beach | Snake Creek | E | NY | Ontario | River |
| 1307 | * | Deer Creek | Deer Creek | E E | NY | Ontario | River |
| 1318 | * | Muskellunge Bay | Muskellunge Creek | E E | NY | Ontario | |
| 1318 | - | Fox Creek | Fox Creek | E E | NY | | Open River |
| 1323 | | FOX CIECK | rox Creek | E | IN I | Ontario | Kiver |

anthropogenic stressor gradients representing the entire geographic range of the U.S. Great Lakes coast (Danz *et al.* 2005). The 90 wetland complexes selected for study were distributed along the U.S. Great Lakes coast from the western end of Lake Superior to the eastern end of Lake Ontario (Table 1). Sites were classified by hydrogeomorphic type as Open-Coast Wetlands (n = 27), River-Influenced Wetlands (n = 35), or Protected Wetlands (n = 28).

Some wetlands had attributes of two or more hydrogeomorphic types and were subdivided accordingly (e.g., complexes 1024–1026, Table 1). Sampling took place from 2001 to 2003 and was restricted to the months of July and August to ensure that most of the vegetation could be identified and peak annual growth was observed. Each wetland was visited once.

Sampling within the selected study sites was

done in 1 m \times 1 m plots distributed along randomly placed transects within areas mapped as emergent vegetation (sensu Cowardin et al. 1979) by national and state wetland inventories along the Great Lakes. Transects were established with a geographic information system (GIS) prior to field campaigns, using a program called Sample (http://www.quantdec.com/sample) to randomize transect placement (Johnston et al. in press). Each transect intersected a randomly selected point generated by the Sample program, and was oriented along the perceived water depth gradient, extending from open water to the upland boundary (or to a shrub-dominated wetland zone, if present). Although transects were terminated at the edges of tall shrub-dominated zones, ericaceous shrubs and isolated shrub patches occurring within a predominantly herbaceous plant matrix were included in the sampling. Transect length and target number of sample plots were determined in proportion to the size of the wetland to be sampled (20 plots/60 ha, minimum transect length = 40 m, minimum plots/site = 8). Transect coordinates were uploaded into a handheld global positioning system for use by field crews.

Plot locations were established in the field by dividing each transect into 20 m segments and randomly locating a plot in each segment using a random number table. Within each plot all vascular plant species were identified to the lowest taxonomic division possible (Fassett 1957, Voss 1972, Voss 1985, Voss 1996, Eggers and Reed 1997, Chadde 1998). Large, identifiable non-vascular plants, such as Chara vulgaris L. and Sphagnum spp., were also given cover estimations. If a plant species could not be identified in the field, it was collected, pressed, and identified in the lab. Percent cover was estimated visually for each taxon according to modified Braun-Blanquet cover class ranges (ASTM 1997): < 1%, 1 to < 5%, 5 to < 25%, 25 to < 50%, 50 to < 75%, 75 to 100%. Prior to data analyses, cover classes were converted to the midpoint percent cover of each class using the algebraic mid-points of the six cover class ranges (0.5, 3.0, 37.5, 62.5, 87.5). Field teams were jointly trained and tested to ensure consistency of visual observations (Kercher et al. 2003).

Environmental variables were collected simultaneously with vegetation sampling. Using the same cover class ranges described above, six ground cover categories were recorded: herbaceous litter, autochthonous woody litter, driftwood, bare soil, brown moss (i.e., any non-Sphagnum moss

species), and open water patches $> 10 \text{ cm} \times 10 \text{ cm}$. Other variables measured for each plot were maximum water depth, dominant canopy height, and tussock height. Tussock height was measured by placing a meter stick vertically adjacent to the tallest organic soil mound in a plot, and observing the mound's height from base to summit. Vegetation and environmental variables were characterized at a total of 1,963 plots (average of 22 plots per site).

The soils at each plot were examined to a depth of 30 cm below the litter layer using a soil probe, and assigned to one of the following broad categories: organic, sand, silt, clay. "Organic" soils were those composed of organic soil material (peat or muck) in a histic epipedon (Soil Survey Staff 1999); undecomposed plant litter overlying the soil surface was excluded when making this determination. Only the surface 30 cm was considered, so we did not attempt to discern if soils in the organic category were true histosols. The texture of mineral soils (i.e., sand, silt, clay) was determined by feel using standard field methods (Soil Survey Staff 1951). All field staff were annually trained to perform this hand texturing by co-author Johnston, who is a Professional Soil Scientist certified by the American Society of Agronomy and experienced at wetland soil characterization using both field and laboratory methods (Johnston 2003; Johnston et al. 1984, 1995, 2001). Field soil characterizations were compared with data on organic matter (weight loss on ignition) and fine particle content (proportion by weight of ashed soil passing through a 63 mm mesh sieve) determined for one-third of our sites by the GLEI group studying invertebrate indicators (Valerie Brady and Lucinda Johnson, Natural Resources Research Institute, University of Minnesota, Duluth personal communication).

The Interagency Taxonomic Information System (http://www.itis.usda.gov) was used as the ultimate taxonomic authority, and the USDA Plants Database (USDA NRCS 2004) was used for species symbol codes. Values for "coefficient of conservatism" (C value), a ranking system developed by Swink and Wilhelm (1969) to indicate a plant's fidelity to "remnant natural plant communities," were obtained from the Michigan Natural Heritage Program (Herman et al. 2001). A C value of 0 signifies no confidence that a species came from a natural community (e.g., Phalaris, Phragmites), whereas a value of 10 signifies a plant that almost certainly comes from an undegraded remnant natural plant community; non-native species receive no C values.

Although other Great Lake states have also developed coefficient of conservatism lists, Michigan values (Herman *et al.* 2001) were used for simplicity because 40% of the study sites were in Michigan and because Michigan spans most of the north-south gradient of the Great Lakes.

Statistical and Geographical Analysis

Indicator species analysis (ISA) was used to identify plant species indicative of physical environment (Dufrêne and Legendre 1997). ISA is a computational method that uses categories defined a priori (e.g., environmental variable categories), and determines the faithfulness of occurrence of a species to a particular category based on species frequency and abundance. In Dufrêne and Legendre's terminology, the "indicator value" of a species in a given category is calculated as:

$$IV_{kj} = 100(RA_{kj} \times RF_{kj}) \tag{1}$$

where RF_{kj} is relative frequency, the proportion of sample units (e.g., plots) in group k that contain species j; and RA_{kj} is the relative abundance of species j in group k. The RA_{ki} term is computed as average abundance of a species in a category of plots (e.g., plots with organic soil) divided by the average abundance of that species in all plots. The RA_{ki} term measures exclusiveness, the concentration of abundance into a particular group, whereas the RF_{ki} term measures the faithfulness or constancy of presence in a particular group; both values must be relatively high for the species to be a significant indicator species (McKune and Grace 2002). The statistical significance of the computed IV_{ki} values was tested for each species by Monte Carlo simulations (1,000 randomizations). A significance threshold of p < 0.05 was used to identify hydrogeomorphic indicator species, but a more restrictive significance threshold of p < 0.01 was used to identify soil indicator species due to the large number of plots (n = 1,963) included in the soil ISA. All calculations were done using the PC-ORD software package (McCune and Mefford 1999). Details of the indicator species methodology and examples of its application are described by McCune and Grace (2002).

Indicator species analyses were performed for the two types of physical variables at two scales: hydrogeomorphic type at the site scale (n = 90: Table 1), and soil type at the plot scale (n = 1,963: Table 2). The ISA was performed using 169 candidate

TABLE 2. Number of sample plots by soil type and lake.

| Lake | Organic | Clay | Silt | Sand | Total by lake |
|---------------|---------|------|------|------|------------------|
| Superior | 265 | 50 | 117 | 49 | 481 |
| Huron | 22 | 17 | 79 | 185 | 303 |
| Michigan | 493 | 24 | 30 | 200 | 747 |
| Erie | 19 | 112 | 60 | 19 | 210 |
| Ontario | 188 | 31 | 2 | 1 | 222 |
| Total by soil | 987 | 234 | 288 | 454 | 1,963 |

taxa which met the criteria of: (1) occurring in a minimum of four sites and ten plots; and (2) being identified to species, with the exception of three non-vascular genera (Azolla sp., Riccia sp., Sphagnum sp.). The same 169 candidate taxa were used for both soil and hydrogeomorphic indicator species analyses, but their cover data were aggregated differently: species cover per plot was used in the soil ISA, whereas mean species cover per site was used in the hydrogeomorphic ISA.

Canonical correspondence analysis (CCA: ter Braak 1986, Palmer 1993) was used to relate common species, those which occurred in more than 20 of the 90 sites, to ten environmental characteristics (water depth, tussock height, latitude, longitude, and the six ground cover categories) measured at the plot scale. Axis scores were centered and standardized to unit variance, and axes scaled to optimize representation of species. The CCA calculations were done using PC-ORD (McCune and Mefford 1999).

A species-area curve (Hill *et al.* 1994) was constructed to show the increasing number of species observed as sample plots were successively pooled. Computations were done using the PRIMER software package (Clarke and Gorley 2006), using random permutation to enter samples in random order 999 times. Other statistical analyses were performed with SAS/STAT® 9.0 software (SAS Institute, Cary NC).

Digital versions of Quaternary geology maps for the Great Lakes (Fullerton 2004, 2005; Fullerton and Richmond 1991; Richmond and Fullerton 2001a, 2001b) were obtained from the U.S. Geological Survey Geologic Investigations Series Online (http://pubs.usgs.gov/products/maps/i-maps.html) and used to map Late Wisconsin glaciolacustrine silt and clay deposits using ArcMapTM 9.1 (ESRI, Redlands CA). GIS methods are detailed by Johnston and colleagues (in press).

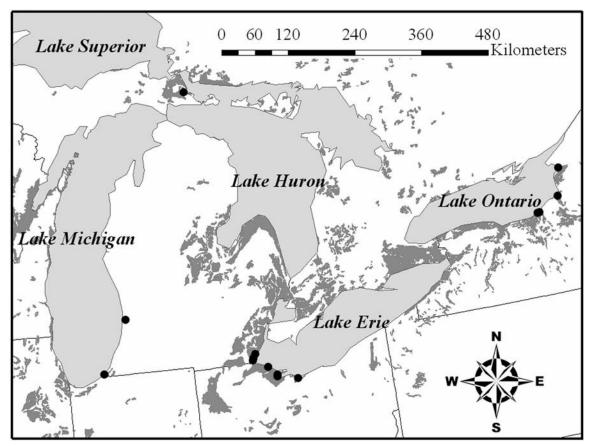


FIG. 1. Study sites (•) in the lower Great Lakes observed to have clay soils, plotted on a map of glaciolacustrine clay deposits.

RESULTS

Sample Characteristics

In all, 1,963 plots were sampled in the 90 wetlands studied. Half of the plots sampled (987 of 1,963 plots) were classified as organic, of which the majority was in Lakes Superior and Michigan (Table 2). The other half of the plots were mineral soils of sand, silt, or clay texture, respectively constituting 23%, 15%, and 12% of the total number of plots. Lakes Michigan and Huron had the most sand plots, and Lake Superior had the most silt plots. Lake Ontario contained primarily organic and clay soil plots.

Clay soils occurred in seven of the ten Lake Erie study sites and nine of the 21 sites on western Lake Superior. Other study sites with clay soils occurred on eastern Lake Ontario, southern Lake Michigan, and the Munuscong site on Lake Huron. With the exception of the Kalamazoo site on the eastern shore of Lake Michigan (complex 1133), all of the sites in which we found clay soils occurred on

glaciolacustrine sediments deposited during the Late Wisconsin period, as mapped by the U.S. Geological Survey (Fig. 1).

Field determination of soil classes was corroborated by laboratory data. Soils determined in the field to be "sand" had fine particle contents averaging only 3.5%, as compared with 20.3% for field-determined silt or clay soils. Soils determined in the field to be "organic" had an average organic matter content of 39.5%, as compared with only 3.2% for soils determined in the field to be sand, silt, or clay (i.e., non-organic). Soil horizons > 20–35% organic matter are considered to be organic by soil taxonomists (Soil Survey Staff 1999).

The species-area curve computed for the dataset showed that a random sample of only 196 plots, one-tenth the number actually sampled, would have yielded 156 ± 3.4 of the 169 taxa which were ultimately used in the ISA. This analysis illustrates that the 1,963 plot sample size was sufficiently large to

more than adequately characterize plant species diversity.

Species Indicators of Soil Type

Based on the Monte Carlo simulations of the ISA, 90 of the 169 candidate taxa were significantly (p < 0.01) associated with a particular soil type (Table 3). A value close to 100 for RA_{kj} denotes a species that is nearly always associated with that soil type. For example, the value of 99% for large cranberry (Vaccinium macrocarpon) means that 99% of the 47 plots in which it occurred had organic soil. A species with a lower RA_{ki} value could still be a significant indicator of soil type, particularly if the total number of plots of occurrence was large. For example, wooly-fruit sedge (Carex lasiocarpa) was an indicator of organic soil, but only 47% of the 370 plots in which it occurred had organic soil. Organic soil was the modal soil type for wooly-fruit sedge, but the species also occurred frequently on sandy soils.

Within our dataset, the majority of the taxa that were significant soil indicators occurred in both the Laurentian Mixed Forest and the Eastern Broadleaf Forest ecoprovinces. Nine soil indicators occurred only in the Eastern Broadleaf Forest ecoprovince, 24 soil indicators occurred only in the Laurentian Mixed Forest ecoprovince, and the remainder (57 taxa) occurred in both (Table 3). These occurrences represent the ecoprovince distribution only within the data that we collected, however, and are not equivalent to plant range maps.

There were 28 organic soil indicator species, of which more than half were taxa typically associated with bogs and poor fens: Andromeda polifolia, Carex lasiocarpa, Chamaedaphne calyculata, Drosera rotundifolia, Menyanthes trifoliata, Myrica gale, Pogonia ophioglossoides, Rhynchospora alba, Rhynchospora fusca, Salix pedicellaris, Sarracenia purpurea, Solidago uliginosa, Sphagnum sp., Triadenum fraseri, Utricularia intermedia, and the two Vaccinium species. These bog and fen taxa are more common in northern wetlands, and ten of the organic soil indicators occurred exclusively in the Laurentian Mixed Forest ecoprovince within our dataset. All of the bog and fen taxa except Solidago uliginosa had C values ≥ 6 , indicating a strong fidelity to remnant natural plant communities. Organic soil indicator species that had low C values included stinging nettle (*Urtica dioica*, C = 1) and the invasive exotics frogbit (Hydrocharis morsusranae) and hybrid cattail (Typha x glauca, C = 0).

The 26 sand indicator species included 12 species of true rushes (Juncus spp.), spikerushes (Eleocharis spp.), and bulrushes (Schoenoplectus spp.). Other graminoid monocots among the sand indicator species were four grasses (Agrostis hyemalis, Dichanthelium acuminatum, Glyceria striata, Muhlenbergia glomerata), two sedges (Carex hystericina, C. viridula), and seaside arrowgrass (Triglochin maritimum). Nine of the sand indicator species occurred only in the Laurentian Mixed Forest ecoprovince within our dataset.

The 19 species that were indicators of silty soils included most of the submerged and rooted-floating aquatic species on the soil indicators list: Chara vulgaris, Elodea canadensis, Myriophyllum sibiricum, Najas flexilis, Nuphar lutea, Nymphaea odorata, Potamogeton friesii, and Stuckenia filiformis. Other silt soil indicators tended to be species capable of rooting in subaqueous soils (i.e., marshes), such as Equisetum fluviatile, Schoenoplectus subterminalis, Schoenoplectus tabernaemontani, Sparganium eurycarpum, Zizania aquatica, and the two Sagittaria species.

The clay indicators group included all six of the free-floating plant taxa that were soil indicators: Azolla sp., Riccia sp., Ricciocarpos natans, Spirodela polyrrhiza, Lemna minor, and L. trisulca. These tiny plants were not rooted in the substrate, and almost always occurred beneath the protective overstory of taller emergents, such as Phragmites australis or Typha spp. (Fig. 2). Two common invasive species, reed canary grass (Phalaris arundinacea) and narrowleaf cattail (Typha angustifolia), were also significant indicator species for clay soils.

The C values for species that were soil indicators spanned the range of possible values (Table 3). There was no significant difference in average C values by soil type (ANOVA, F = 0.59, p = 0.623), implying that remnant natural plant communities are not restricted to any particular soil type.

Species Indicators of Hydrogeomorphic Type

Of the 169 candidate taxa considered in the ISA, 48 were significant (p < 0.05) indicators of hydrogeomorphic type (Table 3). Two-thirds of the hydrogeomorphic indicator species were also soil indicators.

The twelve indicators for Protected Wetlands were primarily species associated with bogs and fens, and most were also indicators of organic soil. The three Protected Wetland indicators that were

TABLE 3. Indicator species for soil and hydrogeomorphic type. USDA symbols provided for common plant species used in CCA analysis. C = coefficient of conservatism values (Herman et al. 2001). $RA_{kj} = conservation$ relative abundance in group (see equation 1); when two numbers are given, the first is for soil indicator group and the second is for geomorphic indicator group. "Province" = ecoprovince of occurrence within the dataset used; L = Laurentian Mixed Forest, E = Eastern Broadleaf Forest.

| | TIOD A | | Total | Soil | Geomorphic | | |
|-------------------------------------|----------------|------------------|---------------------|-------------------|-------------------|----------------------|----------|
| Plant species | USDA symbol | \boldsymbol{C} | plots of occurrence | type indicated | type indicated | RA _{ki} , % | Province |
| Acorus calamus | | 6 | 40 | _ | river | 89 | LE |
| Agalinis purpurea | | 7 | 12 | _ | open | 99 | LE |
| Agrostis hyemalis | | 4 | 15 | sand | - - | 87 | L |
| Andromeda polifolia var. glaucophyl | lla | 10 | 147 | organic | protected | 65, 91 | LE |
| Argentina anserina | | 5 | 30 | sand | open | 87, 81 | LE |
| Azolla sp. | | nr | 24 | clay | - - | 74 | E |
| Calamagrostis canadensis | CACA4 | 3 | 433 | organic | open | 45, 55 | LE |
| Calla palustris | CHEH | 10 | 95 | clay | river | 60, 68 | LE |
| Campanula aparinoides | CAAP2 | 7 | 248 | – | open | 61 | LE |
| Carex comosa | CACO8 | 5 | 80 | silt | open | 53, 81 | LE |
| Carex hystericina | CHCOO | 3 | 27 | sand | - - | 89 | L |
| Carex lacustris | CALA16 | 6 | 246 | Sand | river | 65 | LE |
| Carex lasiocarpa var. americana | CALAA | 8 | 370 | organic | - | 47 | LE |
| Carex scoparia | CALAA | 4 | 22 | organic – | open | 100 | L |
| Carex scoparia Carex utriculata | | 5 | 62 | silt | open river | 58, 71 | L |
| Carex viridula | | 4 | 23 | sand | | 91, 87 | LE |
| | | 7 | 23 | Sanu — | open | 98 | E |
| Cephalanthus occidentalis | CEDE4 | 1 | 74 | clay | protected | 56 | LE |
| Chamaedanhne ealweylata | CEDE4 | 8 | 113 | • | - protected | 85, 80 | LE |
| Chana yulo aris | | | | organic | protected | | LE |
| Chara vulgaris | | nr | 61 | silt | open | 67, 61 | |
| Cirsium muticum | | 6 10 | 38 | | open | 84 | LE |
| Cladium mariscoides | CODA | | 89 | organic | protected | 84, 93 | L |
| Comarum palustre | COPA28 | 7 | 178 | silt | river | 47, 77 | LE |
| Cornus sericea spp. sericea | | 2 | 19 | 1 | river | 93 | LE |
| Dasiphora floribunda | | 10 | 45 | sand | _ | 82 | L |
| Dichanthelium acuminatum | | 0 | 17 | 1 | | 100 | |
| var. lindheimeri | | 8 | 17 | sand _. | _ | 100 | LE |
| Drosera rotundifolia | | 6 | 94 | organic | _ | 97 | L |
| Eleocharis acicularis | | 7 | 15 | sand | open | 96, 100 | LE |
| Eleocharis elliptica | ELED | 6 | 34 | - , | protected | 65 | LE |
| Eleocharis erythropoda | ELER | 4 | 112 | sand | open | 73, 81 | LE |
| Eleocharis palustris | ELPA3 | 5 | 81 | sand | _ | 64 | LE |
| Eleocharis quinqueflora | TI C . 5 | 10 | 10 | sand | _ | 100 | L |
| Elodea canadensis | ELCA7 | 1 | 48 | silt | _ | 86 | LE |
| Epilobium coloratum | FOF | 3 | 16 | silt | _ | 67 | L |
| Equisetum fluviatile | EQFL | 7 | 168 | silt | _ | 74 | L |
| Eupatorium perfoliatum | EUPE3 | 4 | 73 | sand | open | 70, 75 | LE |
| Euthamia graminifolia | | 3 | 52 | sand | open | 83, 67 | LE |
| Galium tinctorium | | 5 | 70 | clay | _ | 60 | LE |
| Glyceria striata | | 4 | 15 | sand | _ | 90 | LE |
| Hibiscus moscheutos | | 7 | 40 | clay | protected | 52, 91 | E |
| Hydrocharis morsus-ranae | | 0 | 73 | organic | _ | 60 | E |
| Juncus alpinoarticulatus | | 5 | 13 | sand | _ | 98 | LE |
| Juncus balticus var. littoralis | | 4 | 50 | sand | open | 98, 62 | LE |
| Juncus brevicaudatus | | 8 | 18 | sand | _ | 100 | L |
| Juncus dudleyi | | 1 | 36 | sand | open | 95, 97 | L |
| Juncus nodosus | JUNO2 | 5 | 117 | sand | open | 84, 89 | LE |
| Juncus pelocarpus | | 8 | 37 | sand | open | 67, 94 | LE |
| Lemna minor | LEMI3 | 5 | 298 | clay | _ | 79 | LE |
| Lemna trisulca | | 6 | 54 | clay | _ | 74 | LE |
| | | | | | | | |

TABLE 3. Continued.

| Plant species | USDA symbol | $\boldsymbol{\mathcal{C}}$ | Total plots of occurrence | Soil type indicated | Geomorphic type indicated | RA _{kj} , % | Province |
|-------------------------------------|----------------|----------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------------|----------------------|----------|
| Lysimachia thyrsiflora | LYTH2 | 6 | 175 | organic | | 60 | LE |
| Menyanthes trifoliata | L11112 | 8 | 77 | | protected | 96, 72 | L |
| Muhlenbergia glomerata | | 10 | 28 | organic sand | protected | 86 | L |
| Myrica gale | MYGA | 6 | 227 | organic | _ | 56 | LE |
| Myriophyllum sibiricum | MITOA | 10 | 21 | silt | _ | 58 | LE |
| Najas flexilis | | 5 | 21 | silt | _ | 64 | LE |
| Nelumbo lutea | | 8 | 28 | clay | _ | 65 | E |
| Nuphar lutea ssp. variegata | | 7 | 36 | silt | _ | 86 | LE |
| Nymphaea odorata | | 6 | 84 | silt | _ | 52 | LE |
| Peltandra virginica | | 6 | 108 | organic | river | 55, 86 | E |
| Phalaris arundinacea | PHAR3 | 0 | 212 | clay | _ | 37 | LE |
| Pogonia ophioglossoides | 11111113 | 10 | 31 | organic | _ | 98 | L |
| Polygonum hydropiperoides | | 5 | 35 | clay | _ | 78 | LE |
| Polygonum sagittatum | | 5 | 29 | clay | _ | 61 | LE |
| Pontederia cordata | | 8 | 41 | clay | _ | 52 | LE |
| Potamogeton friesii | | 6 | 29 | silt | _ | 95 | LE |
| Proserpinaca palustris | | 6 | 12 | sand | _ | 100 | LE |
| Rhynchospora alba | | 6 | 79 | organic | _ | 80 | L |
| Rhynchospora fusca | | 7 | 30 | organic | _ | 100 | Ĺ |
| Riccia sp. | | nr | 22 | clay | _ | 66 | Ē |
| Ricciocarpus natans | | nr | 26 | clay | _ | 92 | LE |
| Rosa palustris | | 5 | 11 | organic | _ | 100 | LE |
| Sagittaria graminea | | 10 | 50 | silt | _ | 83 | LE |
| Sagittaria latifolia | SALA2 | 1 | 268 | silt | _ | 58 | LE |
| Salix discolor | | 1 | 29 | _ | river | 87 | LE |
| Salix pedicellaris | | 8 | 60 | organic | _ | 69 | LE |
| Salix petiolaris | | 1 | 39 | _ | open | 100 | LE |
| Sarracenia purpurea | | 10 | 102 | organic | protected | 53, 96 | L |
| Schoenoplectus acutus var. acutus | | 5 | 39 | sand | _ | 67 | LE |
| Schoenoplectus pungens var. pungens | | 5 | 134 | sand | open | 81, 98 | LE |
| Schoenoplectus subterminalis | | 8 | 21 | silt | open | 42, 95 | L |
| Schoenoplectus tabernaemontani | SCTA2 | 4 | 267 | silt | open | 46, 47 | LE |
| Scutellaria galericulata | SCGA | 5 | 154 | organic | river | 51, 64 | LE |
| Solidago canadensis | | 1 | 22 | _ | open | 84 | LE |
| Solidago uliginosa | | 4 | 14 | organic | _ | 100 | L |
| Sonchus arvensis | | 0 | 24 | _ | open | 74 | LE |
| Sparganium eurycarpum | SPEU | 5 | 295 | silt | river | 43, 52 | LE |
| Sphagnum sp. | | nr | 123 | organic | protected | 82, 81 | L |
| Spirodela polyrrhiza | | 6 | 104 | clay | _ | 78 | LE |
| Stuckenia filiformis | | 7 | 11 | silt | open | 71, 100 | E |
| Symphyotrichum boreale | | 9 | 39 | sand | protected | 86, 100 | L |
| Thelypteris palustris | THPA | 2 | 101 | organic | _ | 100 | LE |
| Thuja occidentalis | | 4 | 36 | sand | _ | 83 | LE |
| Triadenum fraseri | | 6 | 45 | organic | protected | 76, 64 | L |
| Triadenum virginicum | | 10 | 37 | organic | _ | 97 | E |
| Triglochin maritimum | | 8 | 14 | sand | _ | 92 | LE |
| Typha angustifolia | TYAN | 0 | 221 | clay | _ | 54 | LE |
| Typha latifolia | TYLA | 1 | 165 | _ | river | 57 | LE |
| Typha x glauca | TYGL | 0 | 214 | organic | _ | 42 | LE |
| Úrtica dioica | | 1 | 127 | organic | _ | 51 | LE |
| Utricularia intermedia | | 10 | 48 | organic | _ | 98 | LE |
| Utricularia macrorhiza | UTMA | 6 | 101 | clay | _ | 67 | LE |
| Vaccinium macrocarpon | | 8 | 47 | organic | _ | 99 | LE |
| Vaccinium oxycoccos | | 8 | 82 | organic | protected | 81, 84 | LE |
| Zizania aquatica | | 9 | 21 | silt | river | 97, 99 | L |



FIG. 2. Photo of the free-floating liverwort Ricciocarpos natans beneath a canopy of Typha at the Point au Sauble study site (complex 1106). An individual plant is circled.

not associated with bogs or fens were elliptic spikerush (*Eleocharis elliptica*), buttonbush (*Cephalanthus occidentalis*), and rose-mallow (*Hibiscus moscheutos*).

Twenty-four species were indicators of Open-Coast Wetlands. About half of the Open-Coast Wetland species were sedges or rushes: *Carex comosa, C. scoparia, C. viridula, C. vulgaris, Eleocharis acicularis, E. erythropoda, Juncus balticus, J. dudleyi, J. nodosus, J. pelocarpus, Schoenoplectus pungens, S. subterminalis, and S. tabernaemontani.* Of the Open-Coast Wetland indicators that were also soil indicators, eleven were sand indicators, five were silt indicators, and one was an organic soil indicator.

Despite the abundance of River-Influenced Wetland sites sampled, only twelve plant species were indicators of that hydrogeomorphic type. Silt was the most common soil type when plants were indicators of both a soil type and the River-Influenced hydrogeomorphic type. One-third of the River-Influenced indicators were common species, those occurring within more than 20 sites: *Carex lacustris, Comarum palustre, Scutellaria galericulata*, and *Sparganium eurycarpum*.

There was a significant effect of hydrogeomorphic type on average C values of indicator species (ANOVA, F = 10.3, p = 0.0002). Average C values were significantly greater for Protected Wetlands than for wetlands in the other two hydrogeomorphic types (Table 4), implying that Protected Wetlands tend to contain disproportionately more remnant natural plant communities than do Open-Coast and River-Influenced Wetlands.

Canonical Correspondence Analysis

Only 40 species occurred within more than 20 study sites, referred to hereinafter as the common

TABLE 4. Mean C values of hydrogeomorphic indicator species, by hydrogeomorphic type. Means with the same superscript letter are not significantly different.

| Geomorphic type | C Average (±S.D.) |
|------------------|-------------------------|
| Protected | 8.09 (1.5) ^a |
| River-influenced | 5.25 (2.8) ^b |
| Open-coast | 4.48 (2.3) ^b |

plants. Most of the common plants had a growth habit of graminoid or forb/herb, consistent with the project's focus on emergent wetlands, but the list also included several submergent aquatics, one free-floating aquatic (Lemna minor), and two shrub species (Alnus incana ssp. rugosa and Myrica gale). Except for a horsetail (Equisetum fluviatile) and a fern (Thelypteris palustris), all of the common species were flowering plants. There was only one common annual, jewelweed (Impatiens capensis). Although the common plant list contains many dominant species (Frieswyk et al. 2007), it also includes subcanopy plants such as marsh bellflower (Campanula aparinoides) and bulb waterhemlock (Cicuta bulbifera) which occur at multiple wetland sites but have low cover.

The CCA analysis comparing the 40 common species to ten site environmental characteristics yielded three canonical correspondence axes that represented water depth, tussock height, and herbaceous litter cover, respectively (Table 5). A graph of species relative to the first two canonical axes, water depth and tussock height, separated the four submergent and floating aquatic species (Ceratophyllum demersum, Elodea canadensis, Lemna minor, and Utricularia macrorhiza) on the left side of the CCA plot from emergent species in the center and right side of the plot (Fig. 3). Average water depth of plots containing these four species ranged from 37 cm for duckweed (Lemna) to 48 cm for coontail (Ceratophyllum). A group in the middle of the graph contained emergent wetland species with average water depths from 13 to 19 cm: Cicuta bulbifera, Equisetum fluviatile, Polygonum amphibium, Sagittaria latifolia, Schoenoplectus tabernaemontani, Typha angustifolia, and T. latifolia.

Tussock sedge (*Carex stricta*) fell at extreme CCA values for both water depth (very shallow water) and tussock height (tallest tussocks). Average tussock height for plots containing *C. stricta* was 18.8 cm. The extreme low value for the tussock height axis was represented by jointed rush (*Juncus*

TABLE 5. Axis summary statistics and regression with environmental variables (standardized canonical coefficients) produced by canonical correspondence analysis.

| 1 , | | | |
|--------------------------|--------|--------|--------|
| Variable | Axis 1 | Axis 2 | Axis 3 |
| Water depth | -0.713 | 0.562 | -0.392 |
| Tussock height | 0.352 | 0.873 | 0.355 |
| Site longitude | 0.026 | 0.045 | 0.014 |
| Site latitude | -0.011 | -0.006 | 0.087 |
| Herbaceous litter cover | 0.212 | 0.104 | -0.746 |
| Autochthonous woody | | | |
| litter cover | 0.044 | 0.109 | -0.03 |
| Driftwood cover | -0.033 | -0.007 | 0.058 |
| Bare soil cover | 0.015 | -0.230 | 0.458 |
| Brown moss cover | 0.007 | -0.007 | -0.162 |
| Open water cover | -0.098 | 0.019 | 0.031 |
| Eigenvalue | 0.471 | 0.255 | 0.176 |
| Variance in species data | | | |
| % of variance explained | 2.7 | 1.5 | 1.0 |
| Cumulative % explained | 2.7 | 4.1 | 5.1 |
| Pearson Correlation, | | | |
| Spp–Envt | 0.780 | 0.646 | 0.520 |
| Kendall (Rank) Corr., | | | |
| Spp-Envt | 0.559 | 0.380 | 0.332 |
| | | | |

nodosus), which grew out of bare soil with no tussocks. Other species with low values for the tussock height axis included *Eleocharis erythropoda*, *Eupatorium perfoliatum*, *Leersia oryzoides*, and *Phragmites australis*.

DISCUSSION

Geomorphology and soils provide important environmental templates for the establishment of wetland vegetation (Meeker 1996, Johnston 2003, DeSteven and Toner 2004). Geomorphic settings influence wetland hydrologic regimes, substrates, and chemistry (Brinson 1993, Bedford 1996, Kirkman et al. 1998, Johnston et al. 2001). Differences in soil particle size and organic matter content can influence plant germination (Keddy and Constabel 1986, Wilson and Keddy 1986), which may ultimately influence plant community composition. Individual plant species are thus useful indicators of physical environmental factors at plot (water depth, soil) and site (hydrogeomorphic type) scales.

Properties of Indicator Species Analysis

The ISA method has helped other authors relate plant distributions to environmental conditions in

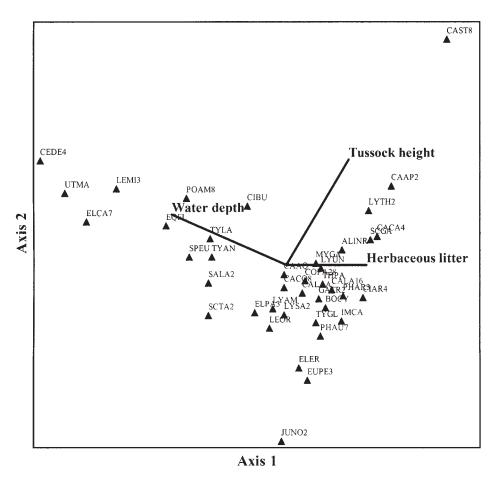


FIG. 3. Ordination of common species in environment space, as defined by CCA, using LC scores. ALINR = Alnus incana, BOCY = Boehmeria cylindrica, CAAQ = Carex aquatilis, CAST8 = Carex stricta, CIBU = Cicuta bulbifera, CIAR4 = Cirsium arvense, GATR2 = Galium trifidum, IMCA = Impatiens capensis, LEOR = Leersia oryzoides, LYAM = Lycopus americanus, LYUN = Lycopus uniflorus, LYSA2 = Lythrum salicaria, POAM8 = Polygonum amphibium, PHAU7 = Phragmites australis; other species codes listed in Table 3. The biplot overlay shows vectors related to the two strongest environmental variables.

recent studies of wetland vegetation (Baker and Wiley 2004, DeSteven and Toner 2004, King *et al.* 2004), but its properties should be understood in interpreting results. Indicator species must have relatively high values for *both* relative frequency (RF_{kj}) and relative abundance (RA_{kj}) in a category (McCune and Grace 2002), which eliminated some candidate species from being indicators. For example, beaked sedge (*Carex rostrata*) had a high RA_{kj} in organic soils (77%), but its relative frequency in organic soils was only 2% (i.e., it occurred in only 2% of the 987 organic soil plots), so it was not a significant soil indicator species. Conversely, a

common species like reed canary grass with an RA_{kj} value for clay soils of only 37% (Table 3) was a soil indicator species due to its high relative frequency in clay soils of 18% (i.e., occurring in 18% of the 234 clay plots). Identification of an indicator species does not preclude that species from occurring in other groups, it only means that the species has a significant preference for the modal group. The combination of the two attributes, RF_{kj} and RA_{kj} , makes practical sense for development of Great Lakes environmental indicators because it ensures that: (1) a species is likely to be encountered in a Great Lakes coastal wetland (RF_{kj}) and (2)

once encountered, it has a high statistical probability of association with the environmental characteristic for which it is an indicator (RA_{kj}) . If greater indicator exclusivity is desired, the values in Table 3 could be used to impose a higher RA_{kj} threshold to limit indicators to those that are nearly always associated with a particular environmental characteristic (e.g., occurring in clay soils > 70% of the time).

None of the species that were *significant* indicator species based on the Monte Carlo analysis achieved *perfect* indication, meaning that the presence of a species points to a particular group without error (McCune and Grace 2002). In fact, the species that was the best soil indicator species achieved only 32% of perfect indication based on its RF_{kj} and RA_{kj} scores. This low numerical value is largely a function of the rigorous test imposed by our very large species pool and number of sample units, and does not diminish an individual species' significance or utility as an indicator.

The ISA method uses pre-defined categories, and a species may be an indicator of one and only one category. The hydrogeomorphic and soil classifications that we utilized included three and four categories, respectively. We intentionally used just a few categories that could be consistently applied, so as to minimize potential classification error. In some cases, our classes may have been too narrow. For example, some species may be indicators of fine-textured soils without a preference for silt or clay, which would be revealed by combining soil and clay plots into a single fine-textured category. In other cases, our classes may have been too broad, and subdividing them into more categories might have been more ecologically meaningful. For example, subdividing the organic soil class into soil with acid versus circumneutral pH might reduce the breadth of conditions encompassed within this class. This research did not test alternative classification schemes, but such work could be the subject of future studies.

The ISA method relies on the dataset used for the computation, and therefore the environmental preferences of indicator species listed in Table 3 may differ under conditions not represented by this dataset. For example, northern white-cedar (*Thuja occidentalis*) was an indicator of sandy soils in our study of coastal wetlands, but inland cedar swamps are usually associated with organic soils (Johnston 1990). Our results should not be extrapolated to areas other than Great Lakes coastal wetlands.

Soil and Hydrogeomorphic Indicator Species

There was a tendency for different plant life forms to be associated with the different soil types. For example, submerged aquatic species tended to be silt indicators, free-floating plants tended to be clay indicators, and sand indicators tended to have graminoid forms (although the reverse was not true, because graminoid plants were indicators of multiple soil types). These associations may be caused by a single driver such as the influence of a site's wave energy on its soil particle size and plant life forms. Sandy soils often occur in erosive coastal environments with substantial wave action, conditions which are tolerated by graminoids in the Cyperaceae and Juncaceae having stiff tissues and strong rooting systems. Silty soils tend to occur in more depositional environments, and are often associated with quiescent conditions that can sustain more fragile plants such as submerged aquatics. Clay soils persist under quiescent conditions that are capable of harboring free-floating plants. Thus, soil type may actually be a surrogate indicator for the wave energy of a site.

At some wetland sites, however, soil texture is a relict of conditions that occurred thousands of years in the past, and is unrelated to current fluvial action. Sandy wetland soils may be relicts of glaciofluvial deposition (Johnston et al. 1984), which is why the protected wetland indicator species northern bog aster (Symphyotrichum boreale) was also a sand indicator. Clay soils within our study sites were relicts of glaciolacustrine deposition (Fig. 1) or clay-rich glacial tills (Johnson and Johnston 1995). Clay soils generally do not signify active sedimentation, because eroded clays are transported in suspension long distances beyond coastal wetlands into deeper portions of the Great Lakes (Hawley and Niester 1993, Shuter et al. 1978, Thomas et al. 2006). Thus, soil texture can be used to make some inferences about the fluvial energetics of a wetland site, but that interpretation must be tempered by knowledge of a site's geologic origins.

Because free-floating plants are not rooted in the substrate, we were surprised that six free-floating species were indicators of clay soils. One possible explanation already noted is the quiescent conditions that would allow both clay soils and free-floating plants to persist in a wetland. Another possible explanation is an indirect relationship with clay particles suspended in the water column. Fine soil particles are rich in phosphorus (Johnston

1991, Bridgham *et al.* 2001), so there may have been a fertilization effect that promoted these free-floating species. Using ISA, the free-floating plant duckweed was found to be a highly significant indicator of anthropogenic fertilization in Everglades's wetlands (King *et al.* 2004).

Hydrogeomorphic indicators were strongly related to soil indicators in Protected Wetlands, but were less so in Open-Coast and River-Influenced Wetlands. Two-thirds of the Protected Wetland indicator species were also indicators of organic soils, which is consistent with the original definition of this hydrogeomorphic type by Keough and coworkers (1999). Open-Coast and River-Influenced hydrogeomorphic types tended to have sand and silt soils, respectively, which is consistent with the wave erosion and alluvial deposition that occurs under those hydrogeomorphic conditions.

The analysis of hydrogeomorphic indicators provided quantitative insights into plant-environment relationships which were helpful in interpreting C value designations. Indicator species of Protected Wetlands had significantly higher average C values than did indicator species of River-Influenced or Open-Coast Wetlands, a finding similar to that of Bourdaghs (2006) for wetlands in the Laurentian Mixed Forest province. Many of the plants that were indicators of Protected Wetlands were distinctive bog and fen species with high average C values. Our finding of significant differences in average C values by hydrogeomorphic type raises questions about the ability to distinguish "remnant natural plant communities" (sensu Swink and Wilhelm 1969) on soils that are subject to natural disturbance, as is the case with River-Influenced and Open-Coast Wetlands which are scoured by flowing water and waves. Although remnant natural plant communities would seem as likely to occur in high energy fluvial environments as they do in bogs and fens, C values may be a less reliable indication of whether or not such communities are natural remnants.

Plant Species in Relation to Water Depth

Water depth gradients are known to have an important effect on vegetation zonation, and depth zones are commonly used to partition Great Lakes wetlands prior to sampling (Geis 1979, Minc 1997, Burton *et al.* 2002). Our data confirm the importance of water depth to separating species in the environmental space depicted by the CCA plot (Fig. 3).

The inter-annual variability of lake levels has been a deterrent to developing vegetative indicators for Great Lakes coastal wetlands. Water levels in the Great Lakes vary on a range of temporal scales (Burton 1985, Trebitz et al. 2002), and water level changes influence the presence and extent of wetland vegetation (Stuckey 1975, Farney and Bookhout 1982, Geis 1979, Harris et al. 1977, 1981, Keddy and Reznicek 1986, Wilcox et al. 2002, Tulbure et al. 2007). Low lake levels probably influenced our data for Lakes Michigan and Huron, where average lake levels in July 2001 and 2002 were 42 cm below the long term average for the month (U.S. Army Corps of Engineers 2005), exposing extensive areas of lakebed in areas where bathymetry was gradually sloping. Consequently, a few of the indicator taxa for Open-Coast Wetlands were generalist species that colonize bare soil substrates by way of windblown seeds, such as Salix petiolaris, Solidago canadensis, and Sonchus arvensis. The later two taxa are facultative species that grow on uplands as well as wetlands (Reed 1988), and their determination as soil indicators in this study may be the result of our sampling during a low-water year.

Water level fluctuations may cause shifts in the geographic location of species, but should not shift species location in the environmental space represented by CCA axis 1 (Fig. 3). Although absolute water levels may shift over time as the Great Lakes rise and fall, the position of plant species relative to each other along a water gradient axis should remain constant: the submergent species that occupy the wet side of the water depth gradient will always occupy deeper water than the wet meadow species which occupy the dry side of the gradient.

The position of species relative to the tussock height axis in the CCA, however, may be a predictor of species that increase in abundance during low-water periods. Two of the species with the lowest values on the tussock height axis, Juncus nodosus and Eleocharis erythropoda, were more common in our study (30% and 23% of sites, respectively) than in a prior study by Minc (1997: 4.5% and 5.5% of transects, respectively) that sampled coastal wetlands when water levels in Lakes Michigan and Huron were higher than or near the long-term average. The more extensive distribution of these two species in our study versus that of Minc (1997) is likely due to establishment opportunities on sandy soils exposed during low lake levels in 2001 to 2003.

In general, our data on species frequency agree

with those of Minc (1997), as 29 of the 36 most ubiquitous herbaceous zone species in the Minc study were on our common plant list. This agreement suggests that most species are minimally affected by natural fluctuations in Great Lakes water levels. Thus, indicators developed during a low lake level period could apply to periods of high lake level as well. This constancy may be partially due to the fact that most of the indicator species are perennials. Furthermore, many of the common plant species in our database have growth patterns that provide resilience to the stress of water level change, such as tussock formation (e.g., Carex stricta), floating mat formation (e.g., Carex lasiocarpa), and tolerance of widely ranging water depths (e.g., Typha spp.: Frieswyk 2005, Vaccaro 2005). Although the indicators presented here could be refined by repeat visits to our study sites during higher water periods, they provide a comprehensive basis for understanding of plant-environment relationships in Great Lakes coastal wetlands, which is an essential precursor for ecological condition assessments in such a large, heterogeneous region.

Physical Environment Indicators in Relation to Ecological Condition

A major challenge in the development of indicators of ecological condition is distinguishing the influence of natural variation from that of anthropogenically-induced environmental degradation. When developing a generic method to use plant species for assessing ecological condition, the results of the research presented in this manuscript could be used to filter out species that are uncommon and constrained to specific physical habitats. For example, species such as Eleocharis quinqueflora, Proserpinaca palustris, Solidago uliginosa, or Triglochin maritimum, which occurred in few plots and were strong indicators (i.e., high RA_{ki} values) of a particular soil type, would *not* make good candidates for development of a multi-species index of ecological condition because their absence would be more likely due to their specific habitat requirements and relative rarity in Great Lakes coastal wetlands rather than the effect of anthropogenic stressors per se. The results of this research might also be used to develop four separate multi-species indices of ecological condition for each of the four soil types, thus eliminating the potentially confounding variable of soil type at the onset of condition indicator development. Finally, the hierarchical partitioning of species variance among both physical and anthropogenic causes, as has been done by Brazner and colleagues (2007) for five wetland plant species, could be expanded to additional plant species using the results of this research as a basis to narrow the field of candidate species. Future work of this GLEI group will use this approach to develop ecological condition indicators with maximal responsiveness to anthropogenic stress.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This research has been supported by a grant from the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency's Science to Achieve Results Estuarine and Great Lakes program through funding to the Great Lakes Environmental Indicators project, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency Agreement EPA/R-828675. Although the research described in this article has been funded wholly or in part by the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, it has not been subjected to the agency's required peer and policy review and therefore does not necessarily reflect the views of the agency and no official endorsement should be inferred. Michael Aho, Kathy Bailey, Aaron Boers, Spencer Cronk, Charlene Johnson, and Laura Ladwig provided field assistance, and Jiyul Chang helped with figure preparation. Robert Hell, Valerie Brady, and Lucinda Johnson collected soil samples and provided soil laboratory analyses. We thank Dr. Mark Brinson and Dr. Lawrence Kapustka for thoughtful review comments that improved the manuscript.

REFERENCES

Albert, D.A., and Minc, L.D. 2004. Plants as regional indicators of Great Lakes coastal wetland health. *Aquat. Ecosyst. Health Manage*. 7:233–247.

T.A. 2005. Hydrogeomorphic classification for Great Lakes coastal wetlands. *J. Great Lakes Res.* 31: 129–146.

American Society for Testing and Materials. 1997. ASTM E 1923, Standard guide for sampling terrestrial and wetlands vegetation. West Conshohocken, Pennsylvania: ASTM International.

Baker, M.E., and Wiley, M.J. 2004. Characterization of woody species distribution in riparian forests of Lower Michigan, USA using map-based methods. *Wetlands* 24:550–561.

Bedford, B.L. 1996. The need to define hydrologic equivalence at the landscape scale for freshwater wetland mitigation. *Ecol. Appl.* 6:57–68.

Bertram, P., and Stadler-Salt, N. 1998. Selection of indicators for Great Lakes basin ecosystem health, ver-

sion 3. 1998 State of the Lakes Ecosystem Conference, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Great Lakes National Program Office, Chicago, IL.

- Bourdaghs, M. 2006. Properties and performance of the floristic quality index in Great Lakes coastal wetlands. *Wetlands* 26:718–735.
- Brazner, J.C., Danz, N.P., Niemi, G.J., Regal, R.R., Trebitz, A.S., Howe, R.W., Hanowski, J.M., Johnson, L.B., Ciborowski, J.J.H., Johnston, C.A., Reavie, E.D., Brady, V.J., and Sgro, G.V. 2007. Evaluating geographic, geomorphic and human influences on Great Lakes wetland indicators: multi-assemblage variance partitioning. *Ecol. Indicators* 7:610–635.
- Bridgham, S.D., Johnston, C.A., and Schubauer-Berigan, J.P. 2001. Phosphorus sorption dynamics in soils and coupling with surface and pore water in riverine wetlands. *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.* 65:577–588.
- Brinson, M.M. 1993. A hydrogeomorphic classification for wetlands. U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, Waterways Experiment Station, Vicksburg, MS. Technical Report WRP-DE4.
- Burton, T.M. 1985. The effects of water level fluctuations on Great Lakes coastal marshes. In *Coastal wetlands*, H.H. Prince and F.M. D'Itri, eds., pp. 3–13. Chelsea, Michigan: Lewis Publishers.
- ______, Stricker, C.A., and Uzarski, D.G. 2002. Effects of plant community composition and exposure to wave action on invertebrate habitat use of Lake Huron coastal wetlands. *Lakes Reserv. Res. Manage.* 7: 255–269.
- Chadde, S.W. 1998. A Great Lakes wetland flora. Calumet, Michigan: Pocketflora Press.
- Clarke, K.R., and Gorley, R.N. 2006. *PRIMER v6: user manual/tutorial*. Plymouth, United Kingdom: PRIMER-E Ltd.
- Cole, C.A. 2002. The assessment of herbaceous plant cover in wetlands as an indicator of function. *Ecol. Indicators* 2:287–293.
- Cowardin, L.M., Carter, V., Golet, C., and LaRoe, E.T. 1979. *Classification of wetlands and deepwater habitats of the United States*. U.S. Department of the Interior, Fish and Wildlife Service, Washington, DC.
- Danz, N.P., Regal, R.R., Niemi, G.J., Brady, V.J., Hollenhorst, T., Johnson, L.B., Host, G.E., Hanowski, J.M., Johnston, C.A., Brown, T., Kingston, J., and Kelly, J.R. 2005. Environmentally stratified sampling design for the development of Great Lakes environmental indicators. *Environ. Monit. Assess.* 102:41–65.
- DeSteven, D., and Toner, M.M. 2004. Vegetation of Upper Coastal Plain depression wetlands: environmental templates and wetland dynamics within a landscape framework. *Wetlands* 24:23–42.
- Dufrêne, M., and Legendre, P. 1997. Species assemblages and indicator species: the need for a flexible asymmetrical approach. *Ecol. Monogr.* 67:345–366.
- Eggers, S.D., and Reed, D.M. 1997. Wetland plants and plant communities of Minnesota and Wisconsin. U.S.

- Army Corps of Engineers, St. Paul District, St. Paul, MN.
- Epstein, E.J., Judziewicz, E.J., and Smith, W.A. 1997. Wisconsin's Lake Superior coastal wetlands evaluation. Wisconsin's Natural Heritage Inventory Program, Department of Natural Resources, Madison, WI. PUB ER-095 99.
- ______, Spencer, E., and Feldkirchner, D. 2002. A data compilation and assessment of coastal wetlands of Wisconsin's Great Lakes, final report. Natural Heritage Program, Bureau of Endangered Resources, Wisconsin Department of Natural Resources, Madison, WI. PUBL ER-803 2002.
- Farney, R.A., and Bookhout, T.A. 1982. Vegetation changes in a Lake Erie marsh (Winous Point, Ottawa County, Ohio) during high water years. *Ohio J. Sci.* 82:103–107.
- Fassett, N.C. 1957. *A manual of aquatic plants*. Madison, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin Press.
- Frieswyk, C. 2005. Evaluating resilience: The implications of invasive species and natural water-level fluctuation on Great Lakes coastal wetlands. Ph.D. dissertation. University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin.
- ______, Johnston, C.A., and Zedler, J.B. 2007. Identifying and characterizing dominant plants as an indicator of community condition. *J. Great Lakes Res.* 33 (Special Issue 3):125–135.
- Fullerton, D.S. (ed.). 2004. Quaternary geologic map of the Sudbury 4°×6° quadrangle, United States and Canada. Miscellaneous Investigations Series, U.S. Geological Survey, Denver, CO. I-1420 (NL-17).
- ——. (ed.). 2005. Quaternary geologic map of the Hudson River 4°×6° quadrangle, United States and Canada. Miscellaneous Investigations Series, U.S. Geological Survey, Denver, CO. I-1420 (NK-18).
- ______, and Richmond, G.M. (eds.) 1991. Quaternary geologic map of the Lake Erie 4°×6° quadrangle, United States and Canada. Miscellaneous Investigations Series, U.S. Geological Survey, Denver, CO. I-1420 (NK-17).
- Geis, J.W. 1979. Shoreline processes affecting the distribution of wetland habitat. *Trans. N. Am. Wildl. Nat. Res. Conf.* 44:529–542.
- ______, and Kee, J.L. 1977. Coastal wetlands along Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence River in Jefferson County, New York. SUNY College Environmental Science and Forestry, Syracuse, NY.
- Harris, H.J., Bosley, T.R., and Rosnik, F.D. 1977. Green Bay's coastal wetlands: a picture of dynamic change. In Wetlands ecology, values, and impacts: Proceedings of the Waubesa conference on wetlands, C.B. DeWitt and E. Soloway, eds., pp. 337–358. Institute of Environmental Studies, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin.
- _____, Fewless, G., Milligan, M., and Johnson, W. 1981. Recovery processes and habitat quality in a freshwater marsh following a natural disturbance. In

- Selected proceedings of the Midwest conference on wetland values and management, pp. 363–379. Minnesota Water Planning Board, St. Paul, MN.
- Hawley, N., and Niester, J. 1993. Measurement of horizontal sediment flux in Green Bay, May-October, 1989. J. Great Lakes Res. 19:368-378.
- Herdendorf, C.E. 1992. Lake Erie coastal wetlands: an overview. *J. Great Lakes Res.* 18:533–551.
- Herman, K.D., Masters, L.A., Penskar, M.P., Reznicek,
 A.A., Wilhelm, G.S., Brodovich, W.W., and Gardiner,
 K.P. 2001. Floristic quality assessment with wetland categories and examples of computer applications for the state of Michigan. 2nd edition. Michigan Department of Natural Resources, Wildlife Division, Natural Heritage Program.
- Hill, J.L., Curran, P.J., and Foody, G.M. 1994. The effect of sampling on the species-area curve. *Global Ecol. Biogeogr. Letters* 4:97–106.
- Johnson, B.L., and Johnston, C.A. 1995. Relationship of lithology and geomorphology to erosion of the western Lake Superior coast. *J. Great Lakes Res.* 21:3–16.
- Johnston, C.A. 1991. Sediment and nutrient retention by freshwater wetlands: effects on surface water quality. *Crit. Rev. Env. Contr.* 21:491–565.
- _____. 2003. Shrub species as indicators of wetland sedimentation. *Wetlands* 23:911–920.
- ______, Lee, G.B., and Madison, F.W. 1984. The stratigraphy and composition of a lakeside wetland. *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.* 48:347–345.
- ——, Pinay, G., Arens, C., and Naiman, R.J. 1995. Influence of soil properties on the biogeochemistry of a beaver meadow hydrosequence. *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.* 59:1789–1799.
- ______, Bridgham, S.D., and Schubauer-Berigan, J.P. 2001. Nutrient dynamics in relation to geomorphology of riverine wetlands. *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.* 65:557–577.
- ——, Brown, T., Hollenhorst, T., Wolter, P., Danz, N., and Niemi, G. In press. GIS in support of ecological indicator development. In *Manual of geographic information systems*, M. Madden, ed. Bethesda, Maryland: American Society for Photogrammetry and Remote Sensing.
- Johnston, W.F. 1990. Thuja occidentalis L. In Silvics of North America, volume 1, conifers, R.M. Burns and B.H. Honkala, eds., pp. 580–589. Agriculture Handbook 654. U.S. Department of Agriculture, Forest Service, Washington, DC.
- Keddy, P.A, and Constabel, P. 1986. Germination of ten shoreline plants in relation to seed size, soil particle size and water level: an experimental study. *J. Ecol.* 74:133–141.
- ______, and Reznicek, A.A. 1986. Great Lakes vegetation dynamics: the role of fluctuating water levels and buried seed. *J. Great Lakes Res.* 12:25–36.
- Keough, J.R., Thompson, T.A., Guntenspergen, G.R., and Wilcox, D.A. 1999. Hydrogeomorphic factors and

- ecosystem responses in coastal wetlands of the Great Lakes. *Wetlands* 19:821–834.
- Kercher, S.M., Frieswyk, C.B., and Zedler, J.B. 2003. Quality control approaches reveal effects of sampling teams and estimation methods for assessing plant cover in temperate herbaceous wetlands. *J. Veg. Sci.* 14:899–906.
- King, R.S., Richardson, C.J., Urban, D.L., and Romanowicz, E.A. 2004. Spatial dependency of vegetation and environment linkages in an anthropogenically influenced wetland ecosystem. *Ecosystems* 7:75–97.
- Kirkman, L.K., Drew, M.B., West, L.T., and Blood, E.R. 1998. Ecotone characterization between upland longleaf pine/wiregrass stands and seasonally-ponded isolated wetlands. *Wetlands* 18:346–364.
- McCune, B., and Grace, J.B. 2002. *Analysis of ecological communities*. Gleneden Beach, Oregon: MjM Software Design.
- ______, and Mefford, M.J. 1999. PC-ORD. *Multivariate* analysis of ecological data, Version 4. Gleneden Beach, Oregon: MjM Software Design.
- Meeker, J. 1996. Wild-rice and sedimentation processes in a Lake Superior coastal wetland. *Wetlands* 16:219–231.
- Minc, L.D. 1997. Great Lakes coastal wetlands: an overview of controlling abiotic factors, regional distribution, and species composition. Lansing, Michigan: Michigan Natural Features Inventory.
- Palmer, M.W. 1993. Putting things in even better order: the advantages of canonical correspondence analysis. *Ecology* 74:2215–2230.
- Reed, P.B. 1988. *National list of plant species that occur in wetlands*. U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, Washington, DC. Biological Report 88(24).
- Richmond, G.M., and Fullerton, D.S. (eds.) 2001a. *Quaternary geologic map of the Chicago* $4^{\circ} \times 6^{\circ}$ *quadrangle, United States.* Miscellaneous Investigations Series, U.S. Geological Survey, Denver, CO. I-1420 (NK-16).
- ______, and Fullerton, D.S. (eds.) 2001b. Geologic map of the Lake Superior 4°×6° quadrangle, United States and Canada. Miscellaneous Investigations Series, U.S. Geological Survey, Denver, CO. I-1420 (NL-16).
- Shuter, J., Stortz, K., Oman, G., and Sydor, M. 1978. Turbidity dispersion in Lake Superior through use of Landsat data. *J. Great Lakes Res.* 4:359–360.
- Simon, T.P., Stewart, P.M., and Rothrock, P.E. 2001. Development of multimetric indices of biotic integrity for riverine and palustrine wetland plant communities along southern Lake Michigan. *Aquat. Ecosyst. Health Manage.* 4:293–309.
- Soil Survey Staff. 1951. *Soil survey manual*. U.S. Department of Agriculture Handbook No. 18. Washington, DC. U.S. Government Printing Office.
- _____. 1999. Soil taxonomy: a basic system of soil clas-

- sification for making and interpreting soil surveys. 2nd edition. Agricultural Handbook Number 436, Natural Resources Conservation Service, United States Department of Agriculture. Washington, DC. U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Stuckey, R.L. 1975. A floristic analysis of the vascular plants of a marsh at Perry's Victory Monument, Lake Erie. *Mich. Bot.* 14:144–166.
- Swink, F., and Wilhelm, G. 1969. Flora of the Chicago region. 1st edition. Lisle, Illinois: The Morton Arboretum.
- ter Braak, C.J.F. 1986. Canonical correspondence analysis: a new eigenvector technique for multivariate direct gradient analysis. *Ecology* 67:1167–1179.
- Thomas, R.L., Christensen, M.D., Szalinska, E., and Scarlat, M. 2006. Formation of the St. Clair River Delta in the Laurentian Great Lakes system. *J. Great Lakes Res.* 32:738–748.
- Trebitz, A.S., Morrice, J.A., and Cotter, A.M. 2002. Relative role of lake and tributary in hydrology of Lake Superior coastal wetlands. *J. Great Lakes Res.* 28:212–227.
- Tulbure, M.G., Johnston, C.A., and Auger, D.L. 2007. Rapid invasion of a Great Lakes coastal wetland by non-native *Phragmites australis* and *Typha. J. Great Lakes Res.* 33 (Special Issue 3):269–279.
- U.S. Army Corps of Engineers. 2005. Great Lakes water levels, historic data, long term average min-max water levels. U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, Detroit, MI. http://www.lre.usace.army.mil/greatlakes/hh/greatlakeswaterlevels/historicdata/longtermaverage min-maxwaterlevels/ Viewed 1 July 2006.
- U.S. Department of Agriculture, Natural Resources Conservation Service. 2004. *The plants database, version 3.5.* National Plant Data Center, Baton Rouge, LA. http://plants.usda.gov Viewed 1 July 2006.
- U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. 2002a. Methods for evaluating wetland condition: using vegetation to assess environmental conditions in wetlands. Office

- of Water, U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, DC. EPA/822/R-02/020.
- Vaccaro, L.E. 2005. Understanding a wetland's vulnerability to invasion: a comparison of *Typha* production, nutrient use and decomposition in distinct hydrogeologic settings. M.Sc. thesis, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York.
- Voss, E.G. 1972. Michigan flora. a guide to the identification and occurrence of the native and naturalized seed-plants of the state. part i: gymnosperms and monocots. Bulletin 55. Bloomfield Hills, Michigan: Cranbrook Institute of Science.
- ______. 1996. Michigan flora. A guide to the identification and occurrence of the native and naturalized seed-plants of the state. part iii: dicots (Pyrolaceae-Compositae). Bulletin 61. Bloomfield Hills, Michigan: Cranbrook Institute of Science.
- Wilcox, D.A., Meeker, J.E., Hudson, P.L., Armitage, B.J., Black, M.G., and Uzarski, D.G. 2002. Hydrologic variability and the application of index of biotic integrity metrics to wetlands: a Great Lakes evaluation. Wetlands 22:588–615.
- Wilson, S.D., and Keddy, P.A. 1986. Measuring diffuse competition along an environmental gradient: results from a shoreline plant community. *Am. Nat.* 127:862–869.

Submitted: 20 July 2006 Accepted: 8 May 2007

Editorial handling: Gerald J. Niemi